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ABSTRACT

Studies are reviewed on early identification and remediation of "at risk" preschool, 1st-, and 2nd-grade children to prevent possible future reading failure. The research review identifies essential characteristics of reading and reading acquisition, explains difficulties in learning how to read, explores variables within the individual child which may later affect reading skills, and outlines the implications for at-risk children. Early literacy acquisition goals should involve: complementing the child's oral language goals, creating favorable language environments, and increasing students' awareness of word parts. Predicting reading performance requires effective screening programs to identify reading achievement problems. Three areas of possible deficits are identified: oral language abilities for comprehension and production, literacy knowledge gained from socialization experience, and language awareness skills. Early intervention has been found to be effective in overcoming these deficits as well as the influences of neurological immaturity and disadvantaged backgrounds. Strategies for improving reading skills involve use of environmental print, kinesthetic activities, recitation, building students' knowledge of concepts and attaching words to them, developing subtypes of reading disabilities and matching instruction to their perceptual strengths and preferences, and involving parents. (JDD)

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Elizabeth Gray

ED 297 512

IDENTIFICATION AND INTERVENTION STRATEGIES FOR PRESCHOOL, KINDERGARTEN, FIRST AND SECOND GRADE CHILDREN AT RISK FOR READING DIFFICULTIES

INTRODUCTION

Reading is a complex skill to acquire. The many approaches to the instruction of this skill involve phonics, oral and written language, and comprehension experiences. Although children learn to speak with relative ease, learning to read usually requires a number of years of instruction and practice.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

In the last fifteen years exciting progress has been made in understanding the factors in learning to read. What are some of the essential characteristics of reading and reading acquisition? Why do some students experience unusual difficulty learning how to read? What variables within the individual child may later affect reading skills? Finally, what are the implications for the preschool, kindergarten, first and second grade child at risk for reading difficulties in light of the impact of early intervention on the student's future success in school?

RATIONALE

In spite of the efforts of numerous researchers to predict the later reading achievement of young children, it is not possible to identify an individual child and declare with complete confidence what his or her reading skills will be in a few years. Balow, Dorie, Rosen and Rubin

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(1978) conclude that present evidence does not support attempts to make individual predictions as to which preschooler will later experience serious academic difficulties. There is a lack of evidence for the usefulness of screening measures in identifying "at risk" children. (Lindsey & Wedell, 1982).

The mastery of reading skills is of particular difficulty for language disordered preschoolers. These children are often given the additional label of "learning disabled" later in their school experience. (Aram, Ekelman & Nathan, 1984) By the time such a child has completed kindergarten, first and second grades, he or she has experienced a feeling of failure in reading, a loss of self-esteem as well as interest in reading. More students in learning disability programs are handicapped by poor reading skills than any other area. (Helfeldt, Henk & Platt, 1986) Consequently, there is a growing awareness of the importance of early identification of these preschoolers followed by early intervention strategies tailored to meet their special learning needs.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON EARLY LITERACY ACQUISITION

Overall, the goals of early literacy acquisition should compliment the child's oral language goals to ensure that the child learn to use language for ongoing social interactions and as a tool for future academic use. From birth children may be exposed to various literacy activities such as listening to stories read aloud. This practice exposes the children to the difference between oral and written language. The

child needs to have a clear understanding of why people read and write. Parents can keep a diary of their child's literacy exposure such as reading recipes, signs, labels, written directions for toys and games, letters and cards received as well as dictating and writing stories, letters and cards. Word consciousness appears to be best fostered through opportunities for the child to observe and participate in playing with language such as reciting nursery rhymes and rhyming games. It is suggested that children need to be well-acquainted with the sound structure of oral language before they are required to apply knowledge to sound-symbol association in early reading tasks such as phonetic exercises, decoding words and spelling simple words. Gleitman (1985) suggests that beginning readers must build their knowledge of written language on their already considerable knowledge of spoken language. They are learning to read a language they already speak and understand. But now they are given ink marks on a page instead of sound waves.

Children with learning disabilities are especially likely to experience language problems. As a group, they are more likely to have problems with

1) word ordering.
2) word endings.
3) word meanings and relationships.

4) word retrieval.

5) the appropriate use of language in social settings.

These children will benefit from rich language environments in their classrooms. In their journal article, Dudley-Marling and Searle (1988) discuss four guidelines for creating favorable language environments: (pgs. 140-142)

1) The physical setting must promote talk through activity centers developed around classroom pets, concrete manipulative objects such as magnets, rocks, etc., which provide opportunities to share, question or react.
2) The teacher needs to provide opportunities for children to interact and use language as they learn. One example of this is in cross-age and ability groupings when students need to explain concepts or processes to others.
3) The teacher needs to provide opportunities for children to use language for a variety of reasons and for a variety of audiences.
4) The teacher can encourage student talk by being an interested listener and giving effective responses. An example of this is:

Child: "Boy, you should have seen the neat stuff at the farm."

Teacher: "You had a good time at the farm."

Not: "Really, Tommy, you shouldn't say, 'neat stuff'."

Liberman and Shankweiler (1985) in their article elaborate on the concept that a language user does not need to be aware that words have parts such as phonemes, syllables, morphemes in order to speak and understand speech. The built-in speech apparatus processes word parts automatically. However, to learn to use an alphabet, to read and spell, the learner needs to become aware of the parts to make the connection between speaking and writing. Possessing this ability distinguishes individuals who are good readers from those less skilled in reading. (Liberman & Shankweiler, 1985). When reading teachers refer to the beginning sound of a word, such as b as in bat, a child may have difficulty realizing that the word consists of three separate units because in actual speech the phonemes are not produced in this way. Therefore, it is hard to isolate these units at the level of explicitness required for learning to read. In Gleitman's (1985) view, this fact stands at the heart of the "decoding and blending" problems in teaching alphabetic scripts.

Once the student has discovered that the written symbols represent the spoken sounds and has memorized these symbols, he or she can decode previously unencountered words. For example, the child can pronounce lip and tip if hip and rip are known. Because the child may not incidently learn these concepts and others through routine participation in literacy experiences, the teacher may have to highlight them or provide instruction through explicit, repetitive modeling.

Liberman and Shankweiler (1985) summarize a number of studies which conclude that children, who, prior to reading instruction, perform successfully on tasks of phoneme awareness are more likely to be successful at learning to read. Children who cannot perform so-called "phoneme segmentation" tasks fall in the lowest group in reading achievement. Instead, these students have acquired each word as a holistic visual pattern, a procedure often called "look-say" in clinical reading. However, reading can and does begin without linguistic knowledge for many readers. Such readers may identify words through the features of the overall shape or from recognition of the initial letter. Lastly, a most important tool for the beginning reader is the use of context to guide meaningful reading, that is, deriving the meaning of words through picture clues.

Children in first grade are very sensitive to the meaning features of reading from the very beginning. This early reliance on picture clues then gives way to a dependence on the letter constituents of the word. This early reliance on meaning and growing attention to print is reflected in the oral reading errors of beginning readers.

PREDICTING READING PERFORMANCE AND THE IMPORTANCE OF EARLY INTERVENTION

An interest in prediction of reading performance has flourished in recent years. The idea behind the prediction effort was to select children who would benefit from help before entering school and before

they experienced reading failure.

Some researchers have expressed disillusionment with the screening of young children to identify those "at risk" for learning problems. (Lindsay & Wedell, 1982; Balow, et al., 1978; Crump &Schaer, 1976). Crump and Schaer stressed that there was no justification for the money, time and effort spent each year on identification procedures and follow-up programs. On the other hand, failure to provide help early enough to children who develop serious learning problems may ultimately cost more in terms of money, time and effort, not to mention suffering. Many researchers are in agreement as to the benefits of early identification and remediation. (deHirsch, Jansky & Langford, 1966; Becker & Keogh, 1973; Strag, 1972).

According to Badian (1986) most studies have relied on tests given at four to six years of age and results from kindergarten teacher rating scales to predict later reading achievement. However, these studies are few, due largely to the fact that the development of predictive instruments is so new.

For the first time in 1977, a Minnesota preschool screening program was offered to all three and-a-half to five year-old children in the state. The children were screened in five areas:

1) Height/weight
2) Physical health
3) Vision
4) Hearing

5) Development-speech/language, cognitive, fine and gross motor, social/emotional

During the past two years, the Early Childhood Assessment Project at the University of Minnesota has been studying what actually happens when children are screened, diagnosed and placed in early childhood special education programs. One of their findings revealed tremendous variability between school districts in the percentages of children identified as having problems. Some districts found problems in the children they screened; others did not find problems in any children. Referral rates varied as well. The reason for such wide variation might be differences in each district's

1) use of test.
2) personnel involved.
3) criteria that defined passing scores.

In analyzing data from four hundred school districts the Assessment Project found no relationship between screening referral rates and any of the general social, economic or educational factors. Also, there were few differences in screening practices existing among screening programs. However, there are problems in the tests in terms of their validity, reliability or standardization sample. A recent survey of model programs for early education of handicapped children showed that only one-sixth of tests used, adequately measure what they are supposed to measure (validity), produce stable measures (reliability), or are based on an appropriate sample (norming) (O'Sullivan,Thurlow, &

Ysseldyke,1986). The tests have demonstrated adequate validity and reliability. Most standarized tests are normed on a limited sample of the population.

When evaluating their screening and assessment procedures, school personnel should

1) keep accurate records of the number of children screened, assessed and identified as handicapped, as well as the number of children placed in special education programs and those who leave programs.
2) monitor the effectiveness of preschool screening programs over time as well as what and why changes, if any, in programs were made.

One program currently in use locally in Marin County, California is the Search/Teach Project. This study is to be completed in 1989 when all the data are collected on the students currently in second grade. According to Dr. Carte's review, (in press) the Search portion of the program is the only pre-reading screening tool available which was designed to be used together with an intervention program. The Teach portion of the program is a set of exercises in prereading processes which are recognized as prerequisites to reading.

Comparatively few studies have examined background variables which may affect later reading skills as well as performance on predictive tests. Jansky (1986) reported that sex, color, teacher

competence, chronological age and an adverse home environment may affect reading skills as well as performance on tests. The presence in a child of several minor physical anomalies was found to be a predictor of poor academic performance. Also, an accumulation of deficits were related to later school achievement. Such deficits may include an unusual birth history, an eye muscle imbalance, and an abnormal EEG. Male sex and birth order were also associated with poor school achievement. In a study of 284 boys the poor readers were of a later birth position than good readers. (Badian, 1986). Month of birth was also a significant factor, with birth in the hottest month associated to reading disability.

According to Schulle and Van Kleek (1987) there appears to be no studies describing the literacy acquisition of children diagnosed as language disordered at the preschool age. At the present time, the only such information is hypothetical in nature. However, the authors suggest that reading difficulties of language disordered children can be viewed as relating to possible deficits in three interrelated areas: 1) Oral language abilities for comprehension and production; 2) Literacy knowledge gained from socialization experience; 3) Language awareness skills including word consciousness, segmentation of sentences into words and phonological awareness. These three areas should be assessed when planning an intervention program designed to develop early literacy skills in these children.

deHirsch (1966) has observed preschoolers from a variety of economic and cultural backgrounds. She, along with Jansky and Langford (1966) examined the importance of neurological immaturity for language disordered children in two studies. The first study followed a group of fifty-two prematurely born children and fifty-two maturely born controls by way of pre/post tests in reading, writing and spelling from kindergarten through first and second grade. The kindergarten tests assessed behavioral patterning, large and small motor coordination, graphic activities, visual perception, and a variety of oral language and reading readiness activities. There was no information provided on the names or validity and reliability of tests. It was found that prematurely born children did less well than the maturely born peers on the large battery of tests administered at all three ages. While they showed some indications of catching up during the years between kindergarten and the end of second grade, significant lags persisted well into the eighth year of life. The results suggested that such children have to be regarded as an academic high risk group.

An often overlooked factor which should be taken into account when determining expectancy is maturity or behavior age. It would include perceptual, visual-motor, motor, social, emotional, and cognitive functioning. Erion (1987) stated in his report that he long felt children are generally identified as learning disabled as a result of their achievement scores and low perceptual skills development. Assessment is based on

mental age, grade level and chronological age. Despite its usefulness, a child's developmental level when entering school is rarely considered. However, despite their developmental level, these potentially unsuccessful children are placed in a grade solely on the basis of their chronological age. This type of placement is referred to as "overplacement". Evidence reveals that perceptual problems may develop when children are taught to read before they are ready.

Another group considered to be "at risk" are cultural minority children. The Kamahameha Elementary Education Program (KEEP) in Honolulu, Hawaii was established as a research and development unit to create programs to increase the reading achievement of educationally "at risk" students of Polynesian-Hawaiian ancestry. It was shown that in lower-income Hawaiian homes in particular, children do not frequently interact with adults in one-to-one conversations nor do adults seem to read aloud to their children. In this program efforts have centered on students in kindergarten through third grade who in the past had consistently scored at about the thirtieth percentile or lower on standardized tests of reading achievement. The students scored near national norms after participating in the KEEP program. The instruction did not concentrate on remediating deficiencies in standard English, but adjusted the lessons to build on the children's strengths in language. Two areas of strengths were targeted. The first was the children's familiarity with home and community using a "talk story" interaction style. The second was the children's knowledge of real-world events. The

children would interact by relating their personal experiences mixed with perhaps some folk stories. These experiences allowed the children to improve their oral speaking skills and at the same time relate their experiences and knowledge to the ideas in the reading text. Teachers should be aware of the importance of considering cultural differences when designing lessons, using the students' cultural background as a starting point for instruction. The students become a resource, not a liability.

For these at "at risk", disadvantaged and/or handicapped children the efficacy of early intervention was investigated in seventy-four primary research studies and the report findings were published by Casto and Mastropieri (1986, p. 417). The immediate benefits included improved cognitive, language, motor and social-emotional growth for the children and improved functioning of the children's parents and siblings. Although there were reviewers who reached different conclusions, the majority of reviewers were in agreement that early intervention is effective. Also, reviewers tended to agree on the importance of our most often cited variables associated with the effectiveness of intervention including

1) parental involvement: 26-27% said "more is better". Parents can be effective, but they probably are not essential to intervention success.
2) age of start: 18-24% said, "earlier is better". There is some evidence which shows that handicapped

children who start later do better.

3) degree of structure: 16-17% said, "structured is better". However, data from handicapped population does not support this conclusion.

4) duration/intensity: 12-17% said, "longer, more intense, is better".

Finally, Hardy reports that based on two studies, two factors favor early attempts at intervention. First, that the younger the child is at the time of assessment, the greater amount of progress is seen at follow-up. Secondly, reading failure persists once it has been established. In order to prevent reading failure, it is necessary to make an accurate prediction of reading performance before beginning formal reading instruction (Carte, in press).

STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING READING SKILLS

For years teachers have begun reading instruction by using traditional basal readers. Some have incorporated other methods into their program ranging from the language experience approach to phonics instruction. Aldridge and Rust (1987) suggest taking the time to develop other strategies for those young children who may not be ready for formal reading instruction in the traditional sense. They suggest using environmental print as part of a well-rounded reading strategy for young, high-risk children. Environmental print includes logos found in stores, restaurants, and on billboards, as well as print found in most

common household items. Aldridge, Cloer, and Dean (1981) found that 70 young children ages three to five living in a lower socioeconomic rural area could recognize many logos such as McDonald's and Kentucky Fried Chicken. Much of this awareness was attributed to television. A study was conducted in Midfield, Alabama using an environmental print reading program. First graders, who were identified as "high-risk" were sent to a resource teacher for one period each day for reading instruction that included an environmental print program. The program was used for part of only one academic year, and long term results are not yet available. However, two observations were made: 1) Many children saw themselves as readers for the first time. Their attitudes toward reading improved. 2) Children become more aware of and interested in print in their environment.

Teachers have long used kinesthetic activities to help develop letter and word recognition (Giordano, 1985). In most reading readiness programs children are given exercises in which they must connect dots for form letters and words. Also, children are encouraged to move their bodies into positions that resemble the letter shapes. Tracing the lines, angles and curves of sandpaper letters can help children differentiate between the letters of the alphabet and help reinforce an awareness of a letter or word pattern. Kinesthetic exercises can be used to teach reading comprehension as well. Here is an example of such an exercise:

stand	-	sit
go	-	stop
pickup	-	put down
open	-	close
give	-	take

The list contains five sets of action words, verbs, the meaning of which can be modeled by the children. Action word exercises are effective because the words are organized into sets based on meanings. Because the words are organized according to contrasts or communalities in meaning, they can be associated with each other, thus simplifying mastery. Lastly, the students' movements in pantomime as part of the learning exercise, further enhances recognition and remembrance of the words. By observing these movements teachers can verify that students are comprehending words accurately.

Another example of how action words can be arranged to imply meanings is:

Tom bounces the ball high.

The car z'g'z'a'g'e'd down the road.

Helen walked sideways on the curb.

These exercises can be varied to accommodate individual, small or large group instruction.

In their article Rakes and Smith (1987) describe one technique to aid in strengthening comprehension and recall, namely the use of recitation, the act of saying aloud the ideas to be remembered, either by individuals reciting a lesson to a teacher or whole class response to question and answer drills. Recitation is certainly not a new concept, but its use may be incorporated at any level of teaching from elementary to college with readers of differing abilities.

The article describes ten ideas for using recitation to strengthen reading comprehension:

1) Periodically during discussions, the teacher stops, points to a student and asks, "What was just said?"
2) As students prepare to leave class, they must tell one thing that they learned that day.
3) Students submit questions about their reading material.
4) Students brainstorm what they think will be on a test.
5) Each student is given a fact or topic on a card and finds information in the test chapters tc present (page 261)
6) Each student is given tags labeled "Y" (yes) "N" (no) to hold up in response to true/false questions asked by teacher/peer.
7) Teacher "shows and tells" items of personal interest to him/herself.

8) "What's in the Box" activity provides inquiry training as students are given "yes", "no" only answers to their 20 questions limit. (page 262)

9) Activity practice dealing with abstracting main ideas from selected paragraphs. Students vote on the best possible answer out of four choices.

10) Teacher quotes a "Thought for the day". Students analyze what author had in mind. (page 263)

Some reasons for utilizing recitation in the classroom are:

1) Students are more motivated to understand what they read or hear in order to be prepared.

2) The mind must actively think about the material, thus deepening the memory trace.

3) Thinking, pronouncing, and hearing involve more physical aspects in the learning process.

4) Both student and teacher are aware of how they're doing. (page 260)

In her article on vocabulary comprehension, Cunningham (1987) divides words into two categories: 1) Words whose concept we have, but whose name we have never heard before, for example, "lunules", the moon shaped white areas at the base of the fingernails; 2) Words we have, we have never heard before, nor have we the concept represented by the word. Goodman (1970) and Graves and Prenn (1986) suggest that when the student lacks both the word and the

concept, vocabulary teaching is more complex than when a student lacks only the word but has the concept. Four strategies were given to help build students' concepts and attach words to them. They are:

1) Provide real objects and experiences.
2) If not possible, provide visuals.
3) If these not possible, think of an analogy.
4) Provide many other opportunities for student to read, write, speak and listen to the word. (pgs. 347-348)

Reading-disabled children were initially viewed as belonging to one homogeneous group. However, one recent focus of reading disability research has been to develop subtype of reading disabilities. Doehring (1976) defined three subgroups of reading disability: 1) Type O: Oral reading deficit subgroup; 2) Type A: auditory, visual deficit -subgroup-matching of letters, syllables, words; 3) Type S: Sequencing deficit subgroup. Computer-assisted training procedures were developed specifically for each of the three subtypes. The purpose of Fiedorowicz's research (1986) was to study the effectiveness of the computer-assisted training procedures in the training of children with these three specific types of reading disability. The subjects were fifteen boys who had been identified as reading disabled and then placed accordingly in each of the three subtypes. The training sessions lasted thirty minutes each day, four days a week for forty-three sessions. "Type O" students were required to read aloud as accurately and quickly as

possible from the computer screen. "Type A" students were to match an auditory sample with the correct visual item from a choice of three. "Type S" students matched a visual sample with the correct visual item. In order to test the transfer of training to reading in general, these standardized reading measures were used:

1) SPIRE: Student Problem Individual Reading Evaluation which gives a grade equivalent level of word recognition.
2) G-E: Gallistel-Ellis Test of Coding Skills which tests the ability to identify sounds associated with letters, syllables and words.
3) QASOR: The Qualitative Analysis of Silent and Oral Reading Test which analyzes the patterns of errors in silent and oral reading. Comparisons of the pretest and posttest scores indicate that the training was generally effective for the entire group of subjects. There was a gain of approximately one grade level in word recognition which is significant progress for reading-disabled children with two and one-half months of training. The effectiveness of the training remained fairly stable at least for a four-month period.

In recent years, educational researchers have been investigating the theory that pupil learning can be enhanced by matching instruction to children's perceptual strengths and preferences. Most studies report

positive results, even though beneficial results have yet to be recorded for beginning reading and readers needing remediation.

Bradley and Thalgott (1987) have worked successfully with students who demonstrate symptoms of reading anxiety by designing individual success oriented reading instruction in conjunction with "relaxation/desensitiization/ visualization exercises" (p. 354.). They have found that anxiety often associated with reading difficulties can complicate instruction and impede progress. Reading anxiety can be alleviated with the techniques to which they ascribe, together with a supportive classroom environment.

Most special education programs strongly emphasize reading instruction. However, the drill and practice required for such reading skills as word recognition and vocabulary development are time consuming and may not receive adequate attention during the busy school day. Practice at home, especially if parents are involved, can provide additional time to improve skills. Hourcade and Richardson (1987) devised a method of home drill in a game format that would be motivating for students while eliminating the frustration parents feel when trying to carry out academic remediation. Cooperative home-school programs can help to establish vital links of communication. Also, the child senses the importance of education when the parent becomes involved in the teaching/learning process.

The literature on effective remedial reading instruction is filled with information on the need for parental involvement. However, Kaplan

(1971) concluded that parents of underachievers need assistance in dealing with their feelings of anger, inadequacy and guilt as well as understanding how these feelings can result in overprotective and permissive behaviors in dealing with their children. Thalberg (1972) also found that parents of a remedial reader often applied undue pressures, and displayed conflicting, inconsistent and unclear reactions. Bates and Navin (1986) believed that working with parents in a counseling setting would assist them in understanding and dealing more effectively with their child's reading difficulty. The authors contacted fourteen parents, seven of whom were asked to become study group members while the others were assigned to the control group. The fourteen students were already enrolled in a remedial reading tutoring program and would continue receiving one-to-one tutoring three hours a week for seven weeks. At the same time, only the seven parents in the experimental group were involved in five parent counseling sessions of 1 1/2 hours per week. These sessions covered topics dealing with: 1) The negative feelings of parents and children towards the problems experienced with reading; 2) The importance of a positive self-concept in the learning process and techniques to help children develop positive feelings about themselves; 3) Appropriate tutoring techniques for use by parents at home; 4) Techniques for helping parents deal effectively with school personnel. All students were tested for reading comprehension and attitude before and after the study with the Dulin-Chester Reading

Attitude Scale using different forms of the inventory. There was no significant difference between the experimental and control group on reading attitude or reading comprehension before the study. However, after the study, the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control group in both areas: reading attitude (+=2.14, df=6, L=.05) and reading comprehension (+=4.13, df=6, L=.01). The finding from this study was that counseling parents does make a significant difference. The remedial students' comprehension and attitudes improved as well as a reduction of tension for both parent and child. While further research is needed to determine which approaches are the most effective in organizing such counseling groups, it was evident that they should become a part of all remedial reading programs.

CONCLUSION

The studies summarized in this paper have been concerned with the importance of early identification and remediation of "at risk" preschool, first and second grade children in order to prevent possible future reading failure.

Because this area of interest is relatively new, there are few instruments available for assessment purposes. One program in use in Marin County, California through the Child Center is the Search/Teach Project.

The writings of Gleitman (1985) and Liberman & Shankweiler (1985) emphasize that from birth a child needs to experience literacy activities. Background knowledge, that which the child brings to school learning,

plays an extremely important role in understanding early reading tasks in phonics, comprehension, spelling and writing.

While conventional reading instruction can employ two approaches- the phonics vs. the "whole word" approach- these articles were in agreement that the phonics approach is more appropriate for the "at risk" prospective reader and reading disabled. At the primary level the inability to decode competently simple words in isolation is a characteristic of the disabled reader. (Carte in press).

Other factors such as age, birth, history may also play a part in a child's reading competency.

Many research studies have been conducted and will continue to be conducted in order to develop worthwhile teaching strategies for improving remedial reading instruction.

IMPLICATIONS

There is growing evidence showing that preschool age children "at risk" for reading difficulties benefit from early identification and intervention. In order to implement identification there is a need for improved assessment instruments.

The reading approach most effectively used with beginning "at risk" readers is linguistic based. Also included in the daily instruction for children from infancy through school should be a variety of expanding language experiences which will provide a rich foundation for future success in reading.

There is a need for the multi-disciplinary approach to identification and intervention with preschool, kindergarten, first, and second grade children. Language pathologists and reading specialists working together with teachers and administrative personnel form the team.

There is a need for effective teaching strategies to help remedial readers improve their skills. Also, there is an awareness of the importance of the child's and his/her parents' attitude toward reading activities. The children with the greatest positive attitude can make the greatest strides in their reading achievement.

Efforts on the part of researchers and clinics such as the Child Center and the deHirsch Robinson Reading Clinic have helped to determine the course of this growing field and have directed attention to hundreds of high risk children all over the country. These efforts must and will continue.

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